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Abstract: Crop rotation with legumes and conservation tillage systems are advisable practices in rainfed Mediterranean agro-ecosystems, since, in these areas, soils are broadly characterized by low organic matter contents and low fertility. These management practices can substantially modify the dynamics of soil greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, carbon sequestration and carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions derived from system inputs and farm operations. In this context, a field experiment was conducted under Mediterranean conditions to evaluate the effect of three long-term tillage systems (no tillage (NT), minimum tillage (MT) and conventional tillage (CT)) and two crops (vetch (V, *Vicia sativa* L.) versus barley (B, *Hordeum vulgare* L.)) on nitrous oxide (N₂O), methane (CH₄) and CO₂ emissions during one year. Crop yields, soil mineral nitrogen concentrations, dissolved organic carbon and GHG fluxes were measured during the growing season. Soil organic carbon was measured in spring 2012 (18 years after the beginning of a long-term tillage experiment) and together with input and fuel consumption by farm machinery was used to compare the Global Warming Potential (GWP) of the different crop and tillage treatments. Cumulative fluxes of N₂O ranged between 0.16 (B-MT) and 0.29 (V-MT) kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, resulting in a lower impact on Net GWP than in previous studies. A significant 'tillage x crop' interaction was observed in cumulative N₂O emissions (V resulted in higher N₂O losses than barley in CT and MT, whereas similar fluxes were observed under NT), which was influenced by soil water-filled pore space, dissolved organic carbon content and denitrification losses, in spite of the presumable predominance of nitrification. Neither tillage nor crop influenced CH₄ or CO₂ emissions. Yield-scaled N₂O emissions (YSNE) were low (< 4 g N₂O-N kg aboveground N uptake⁻¹) and significantly higher in B than in V. The most sustainable crop and tillage treatments in terms of GWP were non-fertilized-V and NT, due to higher carbon sequestration and lower fuel consumption under NT and the absence of

mineral N fertilizers in V. These crop and tillage treatments could be considered good management strategies in rainfed Mediterranean agroecosystems since they provide the best balance between soil emissions, YSNE and Net GWP.

Highlights

Three tillage treatments (NT, MT, CT) and two crops (vetch versus barley) were evaluated.

GHG emissions, crop yields, yield-scaled N₂O emissions and GWP were assessed.

The interaction of tillage with crop residues from previous crops may have driven N₂O losses.

Vetch resulted in higher N₂O losses than barley in CT and MT, whereas similar fluxes were observed under NT.

NT and vetch had the lowest Net-GWP of the tillage and crop factors, respectively.

1 **Effect of tillage and crop (cereal versus legume) on greenhouse gas emissions and**
2 **Global Warming Potential in a non-irrigated Mediterranean field.**

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8 **Abstract**

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11 characterized by low organic matter contents and low fertility. These management
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34 absence of mineral N fertilizers in V. These crop and tillage treatments could be
35 considered good management strategies in rainfed Mediterranean agro-ecosystems since
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41 The interaction of tillage with crop residues from previous crops may have driven N₂O
42 losses.

43 Vetch resulted in higher N₂O losses than barley in CT and MT, whereas similar fluxes
44 were observed under NT.

45 NT and vetch had the lowest Net-GWP of the tillage and crop factors, respectively.

46 **Keywords:** Tillage, Legume, Cereal, Greenhouse Gas Emissions, Yield-scaled N₂O
47 Emissions, Global Warming Potential.

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Agricultural practices, such as nitrogen (N) fertilization, account for 60 % of
50 nitrous oxide (N₂O) anthropogenic emissions. Nitrous oxide is a greenhouse gas (GHG)
51 whose Global Warming Potential (GWP, 100-year time horizon) is 265 times higher
52 (without inclusion of climate-carbon feedbacks) than that of carbon dioxide (CO₂)
53 (Myhre *et al.*, 2013). Agriculture is also responsible for other GHG emissions, such as
54 methane (CH₄) and CO₂. In this context, Rees *et al.*, (2013) considered that potential
55 strategies for mitigating total emissions in each cropping system could be developed by
56 making changes in the variables that influence the biochemical processes that trigger
57 GHG emissions from soils, as a result of agricultural operations (e.g. fertilization,
58 tillage, and crop rotation).

59 Semiarid and arid regions, which represent more than a third of global land, are
60 widely used for rainfed grain crops (Harrison and Pearce, 2000). In these areas, the
61 adoption of conservation agricultural systems including cereal-legume rotations is being
62 promoted and continues to increase each year (Kassam *et al.*, 2010). This is likely due
63 to the improvements in soil physicochemical properties and ecology, as well as
64 economic benefits, that have been associated to these practices (Masri and Ryan, 2006;
65 Roger-Estrade *et al.*, 2010; Kassam *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, with the new EU
66 mandatory policy, forage legumes are liable to receive the greening payment due to crop
67 diversification and as surfaces of ecological interest (since they are N fixing crops), and
68 also payments associated to crop production. In Spain, which is the leading country in
69 terms of adoption of no-till in Europe (Kassam *et al.*, 2010), the surface area of cereal-
70 forage vetch rotation has doubled in the last four years (MAGRAMA, 2013).

71 Legume crops have been reported as a N₂O mitigation strategy in many studies
72 (Jensen *et al.*, 2012) since no synthetic N is added to the soil. However, grain legumes
73 can produce N₂O emissions, mainly through N release from root exudates during the
74 growing season and from decomposition of crop residues after harvest (Rochette and
75 Janzen, 2005; Wichern *et al.*, 2008; Tellez-Rio *et al.*, 2015). Management practices,
76 such as soil incorporation of legume residues, and environmental/soil conditions have a
77 great influence on N₂O fluxes derived from legumes. Previous studies have, therefore,
78 reported a high variability in N₂O fluxes (0.03–7.09 kg N₂O–N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) (Jensen *et al.*
79 2012). Most previous studies comparing cereal and legume crops have used maize as
80 the cereal (characterized by high water availability and N input during the cereal
81 growing season) (Drury *et al.*, 2008; Omonode *et al.*, 2011; Dendooven *et al.*, 2012) or
82 have compared cereals and legumes as catch crops during the intercrop period (Sanz-
83 Cobena *et al.*, 2014a, Bayer *et al.*, 2015). Little is known about rainfed legume-winter
84 cereal annual rotations in semi-arid areas, in comparison with cereal monoculture.
85 Moreover, questions including whether legumes mitigate more N₂O emissions than
86 cereals remain unanswered.

87 Controversy exists about the effect of tillage on GHG emissions from soils.
88 Either abatement (Six *et al.*, 2004, Dendooven *et al.*, 2012) or enhancement (Baggs *et*
89 *al.*, 2003; Beare *et al.*, 2009) of N₂O fluxes have been reported following the adoption
90 of conservation tillage. The meta-analysis of 41 studies carried out by van Kessel *et al.*
91 (2013) showed that results are highly dependent on experimental duration, climatic
92 conditions, crop residue composition and management, and N fertilization placement.
93 However, the studies included in this meta-analysis did not consider the interaction
94 effect between tillage and crop. Therefore, further research is needed to gain insight into

95 the 'tillage x crop' interaction and its effect on N₂O emissions, as well as into the
96 response of CH₄ and CO₂ emissions to tillage.

97 Moreover, an adequate assessment of the effects of conservation tillage practices
98 and crop effect (cereal *versus* legume) on GHG balance requires both site-specific
99 emission data and data on the emissions from inputs production, farm operations
100 (Barton *et al.*, 2013) and carbon (C) sequestration. The adoption of NT can increase C
101 stocks in the surface soil layer (Puget and Lal, 2005; Álvaro-Fuentes *et al.*, 2014),
102 although some authors have reported that greater soil organic C (SOC) content is
103 accumulated near the bottom of the plow layer in tilled soils (Angers and Eriksen-
104 Hamel, 2008). The best way to assess whether the adoption of NT can effectively
105 increase C sequestration and its relative contribution to the Global Warming Potential
106 (GWP) is through long-term experiments.

107 The main objective of this study was to evaluate the effect of three tillage
108 treatments (conventional tillage (CT), minimum tillage (MT), and no tillage (NT)), two
109 different crops (vetch preceded by wheat; and barley preceded by vetch) and the
110 interaction of both factors on GHG (N₂O, CH₄, CO₂) emissions, yield-scaled N₂O
111 emissions (YSNE) and GWP. We hypothesized that: 1) N₂O emissions would be lower
112 in NT plots than in CT plots, due to climate conditions and experimental duration (van
113 Kessel *et al.*, 2013), 2) N₂O emissions would be lower in the legume (vetch, V) than in
114 the cereal crop (barley, B), due to the application of mineral N fertilizer in B combined
115 with the effect of V residues, which had a lower C:N than that of the wheat residues that
116 was left/incorporated before the V cropping phase and 3) The replacement of
117 continuous cropping of cereal by cereal-legume rotation with NT management would be
118 an advisable practice to ensure farm sustainability due to the lower labor use in NT and
119 lack of N fertilizer application in V, which lead to an abatement of CO₂ equivalents.

120 **2. Materials and methods**

121 *2.1. Site characteristics*

122 The field experiment was carried out at “La Canaleja” Station (40° 32'N, 3°
123 20'W, 600 m.a.s.l.), in Alcalá de Henares (Madrid, Spain), where a long-term tillage
124 experiment was established in 1994. Since then, several crop (cereal-legume-fallow)
125 rotations have been cultivated (Martín-Lammerding *et al.* 2011). From 2005, the annual
126 crop rotation has been fallow-wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L. var. Marius)-vetch (*Vicia*
127 *sativa* L. var. Senda)-barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L. var. Kika), for each tillage system
128 (NT, MT, CT).

129 The soil was a sandy-loam *Calcic Haploxeralf* (Soil Survey Staff, 2010). The
130 main physicochemical properties of the top soil layer (0-15 cm) were: sand, 50.8 %; silt,
131 37.7%; clay, 11.5%; CaCO₃, 41.6 g kg⁻¹; pH_{H2O}, 7.9 and EC, 121.3 μS cm⁻¹. The site has
132 a semiarid Mediterranean climate with dry summers. Mean annual temperature and
133 rainfall from 1994-2013 for this area were 13.5 °C and 402.7 mm, respectively.

134 Hourly rainfall and air temperature data were obtained from a meteorological
135 station located at the field site. Soil temperature was measured in each tillage system by
136 inserting a temperature probe 15 cm into the soil. Mean hourly temperature data were
137 stored on a data logger.

138 *2.2. Experimental design and management*

139 This experiment was conducted from October 2012 to October 2013 under
140 rainfed conditions. The experimental design consisted of a *split-plot*, divided into three
141 main plots corresponding to the tillage systems -NT, MT and CT- in a randomized
142 complete three-block design. Each plot was further divided into five sub-plots (10 m x

143 25 m), assigned in completely randomized design to all phases of crop rotation
144 involving fallow-wheat-vetch-barley and wheat in monoculture. Here, only V and B
145 subplots were studied giving eighteen subplots (3 plots x 2 subplots x 3 replicates -
146 blocks-).

147 Ploughing was conducted in the first week of October with a moldboard (20 cm
148 depth) in CT plots, and with a chisel plough (15 cm depth) in MT plots. Then, a
149 cultivator pass was carried out in late October 2012 for both tillage treatments. Thus,
150 crop residues (which were left on the ground during summer in all tillage treatments)
151 were almost completely incorporated into the soil in CT, whereas approximately 30% of
152 the surface of MT was covered with the previous season's crop residues. No tillage
153 involved direct drilling and spraying with glyphosate (at a rate of 2 L ha⁻¹ of Sting
154 Monsanto ®) for weed control, and the previous season's crop residues were retained on
155 the soil surface. Vetch was seeded on 29th November 2012 with 120 kg seed ha⁻¹, while
156 B was seeded on 14th November 2012 with 210 kg seed ha⁻¹. Mineral fertilization and a
157 post-emergence herbicide treatment were only applied to B subplots. Nitrogen was
158 applied at seeding (16 kg N ha⁻¹ as NPK, 8-24-8) and again on 8th March 2013 (54 kg N
159 ha⁻¹ as NH₄NO₃, 27-0-0). A post-emergence herbicide treatment was applied in mid-
160 February 2013 using Herbimur Doble® at a rate of 1.6 L ha⁻¹. Insecticide or fungicide
161 applications were not necessary in any of the experimental plots. Vetch and B were
162 harvested on 12th May 2013 and 18th June 2013, respectively.

163 2.3. Sampling and analysis of GHG emissions

164 Fluxes of N₂O, CH₄ and CO₂ were measured from October 2012 to October
165 2013 using the closed chamber technique with opaque manual chambers. One chamber
166 (diameter 35.6 cm, height 19.3 cm, volume 19.1 L) was placed in each subplot.

167 Chambers were hermetically closed (for 1 h) by fitting them into stainless steel rings
168 inserted in the soil at a depth of 5 cm at the beginning of the study to minimize lateral
169 diffusion of gases and avoid soil disturbance associated with the insertion of chambers
170 in the soil. Rings were only removed during management practices. Each chamber had a
171 rubber sealing tape to guarantee an airtight seal between the chamber and the ring. A
172 rubber stopper with a 3-way stopcock was placed in the wall of each chamber to take
173 gas samples. Greenhouse gas measurements were always taken with B/V plants inside
174 the chamber. When plants exceeded the chamber height (19.3 cm), plastic intersections
175 of 19 cm were used between the ring and the chamber.

176 Gas samples were taken twice per week during the first month after fertilization
177 events or during rainfall periods, and then, every week or every two weeks until the end
178 of the crop period. After harvest, one sample was taken each month. All samples were
179 taken at the same time of day (10–12 am) to minimize any effects of diurnal variation in
180 emissions.

181 Measurements of N₂O, CO₂ and CH₄ emissions were taken at 0, 30 and 60 min
182 to test the linearity of gas accumulation in each chamber. Gas samples (100 mL) were
183 removed from the headspace of each chamber using a syringe and transferred to 20 mL
184 gas vials sealed with a gas-tight neoprene septum. Vials were previously flushed in the
185 field using 80 mL of the gas sample. Samples were analyzed by gas chromatography
186 using a HP-6890 gas chromatograph equipped with a headspace autoanalyzer (HT3)
187 from Agilent Technologies (Barcelona, Spain). HP Plot-Q capillary columns transported
188 gas samples to a ⁶³Ni electron-capture detector (Micro-ECD) to analyze N₂O
189 concentrations and to a flame ionization detector (FID) connected to a methanizer to
190 measure CH₄ and CO₂ (previously reduced to CH₄). The temperatures of the injector,
191 oven and detector were 50°C, 50°C and 350°C, respectively. The accuracy of the gas

192 chromatographic data was 1% or better. Two gas standards comprising a mixture of
193 gases (high standard with 1500 ± 7.50 ppm CO₂, 10 ± 0.25 ppm CH₄ and 2 ± 0.05 ppm
194 N₂O and low standard with 200 ± 1.00 ppm CO₂, 2 ± 0.10 ppm CH₄ and 200 ± 6.00 ppb
195 N₂O) were provided by Carburos Metálicos S.A. and Air Products SA/NV, respectively,
196 and used to determine a standard curve for each gas.

197 The increases in GHG concentrations within the chamber headspace were
198 generally linear ($R^2 > 0.90$) during the sampling period (1h). Therefore, emission rates of
199 fluxes were estimated as the slope of the linear regression between concentration and
200 time (after corrections for temperature) and from the ratio between chamber volume and
201 soil surface area (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1998). Cumulative N₂O-N, CH₄-C and CO₂-C,
202 emissions per plot during the sampling period were estimated by linear interpolations
203 between sampling dates, multiplying the mean flux of two successive determinations by
204 the length of the period between sampling and adding that amount to the previous
205 cumulative total (Sanz-Cobena *et al.*, 2014a).

206 *2.4. Soil and grain sampling and analyses*

207 In May 2012, composite soil samples were collected from each subplot at depths
208 of 0 to 7.5 cm, 7.5 to 15 cm and 15 to 30 cm. Soil samples were air-dried and sieved.
209 Soil organic C was then determined using the wet oxidation method (Walkey-Black). In
210 addition, bulk density was determined using intact core samplers as described in
211 Grossman and Reinsch (2002).

212 In order to relate gas emissions to soil properties, soil samples were collected
213 from the 0-15 cm depth during the growing season on almost all gas-sampling
214 occasions, particularly after each fertilization event. Three soil cores (2.5 cm diameter
215 and 15 cm length) were randomly sampled close to the ring in each subplot, and then

216 mixed and homogenized in the laboratory. Soil dissolved organic C (DOC) was
217 determined by extracting 8 g of homogeneously mixed soil with 50 mL of deionized
218 water. Afterwards, DOC content was analyzed with a total organic C analyser (multi
219 N/C 3100 Analytik Jena) with an IR detector. Soil ammonium (NH_4^+ -N) and nitrate
220 (NO_3^- -N) concentrations were analyzed using 8 g of homogeneously mixed soil
221 extracted with 50 mL of KCl (1 M), and measured by automated colorimetric
222 determination using a flow injection analyzer (FIAS 400 Perkin Elmer) with a UV-V
223 spectrophotometer detector. The water-filled pore space (WFPS) was calculated by
224 dividing the volumetric water content by total soil porosity. Total soil porosity was
225 calculated according to the relationship: soil porosity = $(1 - \text{soil bulk density}/2.65)$,
226 assuming a particle density of 2.65 g cm^{-3} (Danielson *et al.*, 1986). As in Gómez-
227 Paccard *et al.* (2015), we only measured bulk density once a year (before the start of the
228 experiment, as indicated above), considering that although bulk density diminishes in
229 the topsoil layer immediately after tillage, this effect is short-lived and is followed by a
230 rapid reorganization of the soil. Gravimetric water content was determined by drying
231 soil samples at $105 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in a MA30 Sartorius® oven.

232 Grain yield and above-ground biomass were measured by harvesting two
233 randomly selected $0.5 \times 0.5 \text{ m}$ squares from each subplot. After sampling V, the rest of
234 the plots were trimmed (regardless of the tillage system), so that V residues were
235 chopped and left on the surface. Aerial biomass was cut by hand at the soil level and
236 weighed after separating weed and crop biomass. Grain and straw were also separated in
237 the case of B. Total C and N content of cereal (grain and straw) and vetch biomass were
238 determined with an elemental analyzer (TruMac CN Leco).

239 *2.5. Yield-scaled N_2O emissions and GWP calculations*

240 Yield-scaled N₂O emissions were calculated as the ratio of the cumulative
241 emissions of N₂O-N at the end of the experimental period to the above-ground N uptake
242 (Nup), and expressed as g N₂O-N kg Nup⁻¹ (van Groenigen *et al.*, 2010). Global
243 Warming Potential (GWP), expressed in CO₂-equivalents (CO₂-eq), was estimated
244 taking into account cumulative soil emissions of N₂O and CH₄ assuming a 100-year
245 time horizon (Myhre *et al.*, 2013) (GHG-GWP). We also considered C sequestration in
246 the first 30 cm of soil and CO₂ emissions from fuel used in farm operations (e.g. tillage,
247 herbicide and fertilizer applications, seeding and harvest) and from manufacturing
248 inputs (operation GHG emission + input GHG emission). The “Δ soil C GWP”
249 component, as an indicator of C soil balance, was calculated taking the difference in
250 SOC stocks between CT (as baseline) and the rest of tillage treatments, dividing it by
251 the number of years since the experiment started and using the CO₂/C molar ratio
252 (Thelen *et al.*, 2010). Different soil masses between tillage treatments (as a result of
253 different bulk densities of the tillage treatments) may influence the differences in C
254 sequestration. To avoid this bias, the comparison of C stocks was made on a fixed soil
255 mass basis, as described in Ellert and Bettany (1995). As tillage events were performed
256 shallowly (0-20 cm layer), and differences between tillage systems in SOC contents
257 tend to decrease with depth (Baker *et al.*, 2007), we only considered the 0-30 cm soil
258 depth for calculating C sequestration. This is a deeper soil layer than in previous studies
259 (e.g. Mosier *et al.*, 2005) in order to include the soil layer altered by moldboard tillage
260 events (Angers and Eriksen-Hamel, 2008). Net GWP was, therefore, calculated as
261 follows (Dendooven *et al.*, 2012):

$$\text{Net GWP} = \Delta \text{ soil C GWP} + \text{soil N}_2\text{O flux} + \text{soil CH}_4 \text{ flux} + \text{operation GHG emission} + \\ \text{input GHG emission}$$

264 We also included a net GWP calculation without considering input GHG flux
265 (Net Farm GWP). Default values of GHG emissions derived from farm operations and
266 manufacturing inputs have been reported by West and Marland (2002), Lal (2004) and
267 Snyder *et al.* (2009) (Table 1).

268 2.6. Statistical analysis

269 Statistical analyses were carried out with Statgraphics Plus 5.1. Analyses of
270 variance of the *split-plot* experiment were performed for almost all variables in the
271 experiment (except climatic ones). Data distribution normality and variance uniformity
272 were assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene's statistic, respectively, and log-
273 transformed before analysis when necessary (e.g. N₂O emissions during Period III, total
274 N₂O emissions, NH₄⁺-N). Means were separated by Tukey's honest significance test at
275 $P < 0.05$. For non-normally distributed data, the Kruskal–Wallis test was used on non-
276 transformed data to evaluate differences at $P < 0.05$. Linear regression analyses were
277 carried out to determine relationships between cumulative gas fluxes and average
278 WFPS, soil temperature, DOC, NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N. Correlations were performed
279 between these variables for the average/cumulative values (n=18) and also for the dates
280 when both gas and soil samples were taken (n=22), with a 95 % significance level.

281 3. Results

282 3.1. Environmental conditions, mineral N, DOC and SOC contents

283 Total rainfall (Fig. 1a) was 376 mm, of which 297 mm occurred during the crop
284 period. Mean annual temperature (Fig. 1a) was 13.7 °C. Water-filled pore space in the
285 upper soil layer is shown in Figure 1b and c. Values were mostly within the 40-60%
286 range during autumn, winter and spring, decreasing from May until the end of the
287 experiment with values below 20%. The number of days with WFPS above 50% was

288 45-55, 5-10 and 15-25 for NT, MT and CT treatments, respectively; whereas the mean
289 number of days for the B and V treatments was 23 and 30, respectively.

290 In V subplots, topsoil NH_4^+ -N content was generally below $15 \text{ mg NH}_4^+\text{-N kg}^{-1}$,
291 and mean NH_4^+ -N content ($1.5 \text{ mg NH}_4^+\text{-N kg}^{-1}$) was significantly lower ($P<0.001$) than
292 in B ($7.9 \text{ mg NH}_4^+\text{-N kg}^{-1}$). In the latter, NH_4^+ -N content (Fig. 2a, b) showed a peak
293 during autumn-winter and again in spring, reaching the highest value in B-MT (49.7 mg
294 $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N kg soil}^{-1}$) as a result of fertilization events. Soil NO_3^- -N content of the topsoil
295 (Fig. 2c, d) increased after fertilization events in B subplots, whereas in V subplots an
296 increment was observed after harvest (12th May 2013). Average NO_3^- -N content
297 (considering the whole year) was also significantly higher ($P<0.01$) in B subplots (11.8
298 $\text{mg NO}_3^-\text{-N kg}^{-1}$) than in V subplots ($4.8 \text{ mg NO}_3^-\text{-N kg}^{-1}$). No differences in mineral N
299 content were found between tillage treatments ($P>0.05$).

300 No tillage (NT) significantly increased ($P<0.05$) topsoil DOC content compared
301 with MT and CT on several sampling dates (Fig. 2e, f) in both crops. Considering the
302 whole crop period, mean DOC content for NT was $115.2 \text{ mg C kg soil}^{-1}$, which was
303 46% ($P<0.05$) and 18% ($P>0.05$) higher than that obtained for CT ($79.0 \text{ mg C kg soil}^{-1}$)
304 and MT ($97.3 \text{ mg C kg soil}^{-1}$), respectively. As for the crop factor, mean topsoil DOC
305 content was 104.6 and $89.7 \text{ mg C kg soil}^{-1}$ for V and B, respectively ($P<0.05$). Soil
306 organic C and C sequestration rates (expressed as $\text{Mg CO}_2 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) are shown in Table
307 2. No tillage significantly increased ($P<0.05$) SOC concentrations in the 0-7.5 cm layer,
308 and C sequestration in the 0-30 cm layer. Given that no significant differences were
309 observed in SOC contents between both crops after almost 20 years of crop rotation
310 ($P>0.05$, data not shown), the same SOC and C sequestration values were assumed for
311 both crops in GWP calculations.

312 3.2. Nitrous oxide, CH₄ and CO₂ emissions

313 Nitrous oxide (N₂O) fluxes ranged from -0.04 to 0.34 mg N₂O-N m⁻² d⁻¹ in B,
314 and from -0.02 to 0.29 mg N₂O-N m⁻² d⁻¹ in V subplots (Fig. S2a, b). Several emission
315 peaks were observed during the experimental period, and small negative N₂O fluxes
316 were measured on several occasions in all treatments. Increases in N₂O fluxes were
317 observed in spring and autumn in both crops, particularly in B after seeding and
318 dressing fertilization. At the beginning of the crop season before mineral fertilization,
319 emission peaks were observed in all tillage and crop treatments (pulse effect). Winter
320 peaks also occurred in B and V and were generally more pronounced in the latter,
321 especially in the MT and CT treatments. Cumulative N₂O emissions were calculated for
322 four time periods, following Tellez-Rio *et al.* (2015), for V in the same experimental
323 area (Table 3, Fig. 3a, b): Period I- from the beginning of the experiment to the end of
324 autumn, including all tillage events and seeding fertilization in B; Period II- from the
325 beginning of winter to the end of April, including top dressing fertilization in B; Period
326 III- from the end of Period II until cereal harvest (beginning of summer); and Period IV-
327 from harvest to the end of the experimental period. A significant interaction ($P < 0.05$)
328 was found between tillage and crop effects in total N₂O cumulative emissions and
329 cumulative N₂O emissions during Period II (Table 3, Fig. S1). In the CT and MT
330 treatments, V subplots showed the highest N₂O cumulative emissions ($P < 0.05$), whereas
331 in the NT plots B had higher N₂O emissions than V, although differences between the
332 two crops were not significant ($P > 0.05$). Nitrous oxide fluxes correlated with mean
333 DOC content in NT plots ($P < 0.05$, $n = 18$, $r = 0.44$), with WFPS in B subplots ($P < 0.05$,
334 $n = 18$, $r = 0.46$), and with NH₄⁺-N in both crops ($P < 0.05$, $n = 22$, $r = 0.43$).

335 Methane emissions ranged from -2.0 to 0.4 mg CH₄-C m⁻² d⁻¹ (Fig. S2c, d).
336 Although some positive fluxes were observed, all subplots were net CH₄ sinks during

337 most of the experimental period. A significant correlation was found between CH₄
338 cumulative fluxes and mean WFPS values ($P < 0.05$, $n = 18$, $r = 0.56$). Respiration rates
339 remained below 1.0 g CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹ until spring and then increased, reaching values of
340 11.7 and 4.9 g CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹ for V and B, respectively (Fig. S2e, f). At the end of the
341 crop growing season, CO₂ fluxes decreased again. No significant differences were
342 found in cumulative CH₄ or CO₂ emissions for tillage or crop factors (Table 3).
343 Conversely, the highest spring CO₂ peak (18th April 2013) was significantly greater in V
344 ($P < 0.05$), especially under conservation tillage treatments (MT, NT). Total CO₂ fluxes
345 were significantly correlated with cumulative N₂O emissions ($P < 0.05$, $n = 18$, $r = 0.48$)
346 and soil temperature ($P < 0.05$, $n = 18$, $r = 0.45$).

347 *3.3. Crop yields, YSNE and GWP*

348 Biomass yields in V subplots were significantly lower ($P < 0.05$) in MT than in
349 CT and NT (Table 1, Supplementary Material). In contrast, tillage did not significantly
350 alter B grain yield or YSNE.

351 No significant differences in net GHG-GWP were found between tillage or crop
352 treatments (Table 4). Net GWP, Net Farm GWP and Net GWP without considering C
353 sequestration (data not shown) were significantly lower in V than in B, and in the NT
354 treatment compared to MT/CT ($P < 0.05$). The yield-scaled GWP was not affected by
355 tillage (Table 1, Supplementary Material). A significant 'tillage x crop' interaction was
356 found in Net GWP and Net farm GWP ($P < 0.05$). This significant result for interaction
357 was due to a low standard error of the mean, even though the differences between both
358 crops for each tillage system were in the same range (Table 4).

359 **4. Discussion**

360 *4.1. Effect of crop and long-term tillage systems on N₂O emissions*

361 Our study suggests that the effect of long-term tillage treatments in rainfed
362 Mediterranean agro-ecosystems on N₂O emissions is highly influenced by the
363 interaction with crop effect (winter cereal or forage legume), affecting the
364 predominance of soil biochemical processes and their final products. We hypothesized
365 that the interaction between tillage and previous crop residues could also play a key role
366 in N₂O emissions. Moreover, the low N₂O fluxes, as a consequence of climatic
367 conditions and management practices, highlight the need to consider other components
368 of the GHG balance and the N emitted/N uptake ratio in order to recommend the best
369 cost-effective mitigation options.

370 In relation to the effect of tillage on N₂O emissions, NT did not result in lower
371 N₂O emissions in this long-term experiment in any of the two crops, which was contrary
372 to our hypothesis. However, this is in agreement with Rochette (2008), who evaluated
373 25 field studies that compared NT and CT treatments and concluded that NT promoted
374 higher N₂O fluxes in poorly-aerated soils, whereas in well or medium-aerated soils the
375 effect of NT on N₂O was small, sometimes even decreasing fluxes. Following
376 Rochette's (2008) classification criteria, we indexed our soil as well-aerated (good
377 drainage combined with precipitation below 400 mm during the growing season), and
378 thus expected NT to have a non-significant effect on N₂O emissions (Table 3), in spite
379 of higher SOC (Table 2) and DOC contents (Fig. 3e, f) . Moreover, no differences in
380 bulk density (Table 2) were observed between the NT and CT treatments. Therefore,
381 apparent improvements in soil structure, which have been associated to the adoption of
382 NT (Six *et al.*, 2004; Plaza-Bonilla *et al.*, 2013), were not observed in our study.

383 An interesting result was the significant ($P<0.05$) 'tillage x crop' interaction
384 observed (Table 3, Fig. S1). Vetch emitted more N₂O than B in the CT and MT
385 treatments ($P<0.05$), whereas N₂O emissions were similar for both crops in NT

386 ($P>0.05$). We identified Period II (mid-December to the end of April) as the most
387 influential for cumulative emissions and the ‘crop x tillage’ interaction observed (Table
388 3, Fig. 3). As NH_4^+ and NO_3^- contents, which were significantly higher in B, are directly
389 involved in nitrification and denitrification processes, respectively, we expected more
390 N_2O to be produced in B treatment. Barton *et al.* (2013) indicated that nitrification
391 rather than denitrification was the main source of N_2O in legume-cereal rotation under
392 semiarid conditions. Although the predominance of nitrification is consistent with the
393 correlation between soil NH_4^+ -N and N_2O fluxes, the results obtained for Period II do
394 not support this hypothesis, because higher NH_4^+ concentrations in B did not result in
395 higher fluxes in these subplots. We suggest that denitrification could be the main
396 process producing the differences observed in N_2O fluxes during Period II, when the
397 highest WFPS values were observed. Some abiotic factors favoring denitrification (i.e.
398 soil DOC contents and the number of days with WFPS > 50%) were higher in V than in
399 B. These could have offset other factors that may have favoured greater N_2O losses in B
400 subplots, such as higher NH_4^+ and NO_3^- contents. The balance between N_2O production
401 and consumption by denitrifiers could explain the significant ‘tillage x crop’ interaction
402 observed (Table 3). In B, the tendency for larger emissions in B-NT compared with B-
403 CT and B-MT (Fig. S1, Table 3) could be explained by conditions conducive to
404 denitrification in non-tilled soils (i.e. higher WFPS and DOC content) (Fig. 1c, 2e, f). In
405 V, the numerically (but not statistically) lower emissions observed in V-NT could be
406 due to a greater potential to denitrify through to N_2 rather than N_2O under favorable
407 denitrification conditions (DOC content) associated with both tillage (NT) and crop (V)
408 factors (Saggar *et al.*, 2013). The low NO_3^- -N content ($< 5 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{-N kg}^{-1}$) observed in
409 V could lead to the use of N_2O as an electron acceptor instead of more oxidized forms
410 (i.e. NO_3^-), thus decreasing the $\text{N}_2\text{O}/\text{N}_2$ ratio. Hence, the higher NO_3^- -N content in B

411 subplots could explain the increase in N₂O fluxes in the tillage treatment (NT) with
412 most propitious conditions (higher DOC, WFPS) for denitrification (Fig. S1). This is
413 supported by the DOC/NO₃⁻ ratio, which Abalos *et al.* (2013) considered to be a good
414 indicator of N₂O fluxes, highlighting the increased consumption of N₂O when
415 DOC/NO₃⁻>2. In our experiment, the higher ratio in V-NT (mean 40.3) than in B-NT
416 (mean 8.2) (data not shown) suggested that N₂O consumption was more favored in V.

417 The effect of tillage and residue type on mineralization rates could also partially
418 explain the `tillage x crop` interaction. Higher denitrification losses (which may have
419 had a large influence on cumulative N₂O emissions in this experiment, as suggested
420 above) and slower mineralization rates were expected in V. This is because these
421 subplots were amended with a high C:N wheat residue (mean C content: 42.2 %, mean
422 N content: 0.40 %), which is difficult to break down by soil microbiota (Heal *et al.*,
423 1997) and provides a C source for denitrifiers. In fact, Abalos *et al.* (2013) observed a
424 peak of N₂O in spring (6 months after the incorporation of maize stover) due to a
425 synergic effect between C released from residue mineralization and N applied at
426 dressing. On the other hand, the V residue, which is much less recalcitrant because of its
427 lower C:N ratio (mean C content: 41.0 %, mean N content: 3.71 %), was applied in B
428 subplots. Tillage could also have had an important effect on mineralization of previous
429 residues in our experiment. In the case of wheat residue (V subplots) the treatments that
430 incorporated residue in the soil (MT, CT) had faster mineralization rates (and higher
431 N₂O fluxes) than NT treatments, where residues were left on the soil surface (Almaraz
432 *et al.*, 2009). In the case of V residues (B subplots), the spring N₂O peak associated with
433 a slower mineralization rate could be expected in NT. Therefore, crop residues could
434 have played a key role in N₂O emissions, and that should be taken into account in the
435 comparison between V and B.

436 As expected, cumulative N₂O emissions (167.7 to 288.0 g N₂O-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹)
437 (Table 3) were in the lowest ranges reported for rainfed legumes and cereals (Jensen *et*
438 *al.*, 2012; Kim *et al.*, 2013). These low emissions were due to low winter temperatures
439 and WFPS values (<50% from 310 to 360 days depending on tillage treatment), which
440 are the most limiting factors for winter rainfed crops (Aguilera *et al.*, 2013). Moreover,
441 the low or zero fertilizer amendment and soil conditions (e.g. low fertility and SOC
442 contents, and good aeration) did not favour high N losses (MacKenzie *et al.*, 1998; Cui
443 *et al.*, 2012).

444 4.2. Methane emissions

445 All crop and tillage treatments were net sinks of CH₄ as usually reported in
446 arable soils (Snyder *et al.*, 2009), and no significant differences were found between
447 tillage or crop treatments (Table 3, *P* > 0.05). These results on the effect of tillage were
448 consistent with those of other studies under semiarid conditions (Tellez-Rio *et al.* 2015;
449 Plaza-Bonilla *et al.*, 2014a). The absence of significant effects could be due to the low
450 soil moisture content maintained throughout almost all the experimental period and the
451 non-significant improvement of soil porosity in the NT system (Table 2), which could
452 have been caused by the high sand content of the soil (see section 2.1).

453 Crop fertilization did not produce significant differences on CH₄ emissions. Soil
454 NH₄⁺ is known to inhibit CH₄ consumption by methanotrophs due to competitive
455 inhibition of the enzyme responsible for CH₄ oxidation (CH₄ monooxygenase) with the
456 NH₃ monooxygenase (Dunfield and Knowles, 1995; Le Mer and Roger, 2001).
457 Nevertheless, in our experiment CH₄ sinks were similar in V (non-fertilized) and B
458 (fertilized). The low amount of NH₄⁺ applied as fertilizer to B (28 kg NH₄⁺-N ha⁻¹ at

459 dressing), which increased soil $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ content only during 50-60 days after
460 application, may not be enough to produce significant differences.

461 4.3. Yield-scaled N_2O emissions and GWP

462 The N_2O efficiency of a cropping system, in a context of increasing food
463 demand, should be expressed in terms of YSNE (van Groenigen *et al.*, 2010). In
464 addition, crop yields should be also assessed independently, aiming to find strategies
465 potentially acceptable by farmers (minimizing the YSNE without significant yield
466 decrease) (Sanz-Cobena *et al.*, 2014b). Considering all potential GHG sinks and sources
467 is also mandatory when implementing management practices with potential side-effects
468 on C sequestration, input demand and fuel consumption (Robertson *et al.*, 2000).

469 No differences were observed in grain or biomass yields between the NT and CT
470 treatments (Table 1, Supplementary Material), probably because 2013 was an average
471 year in terms of rainfall (Fig. 1a), especially during the most critical period of the crop
472 growing cycle (flowering period at spring), which could have masked differences in soil
473 water content and water use efficiency due to tillage. In the meta-analysis of van Kessel
474 *et al.* (2013), no significant effect of NT on crop yield was found under conditions
475 similar to those of our experiment (dry climate and > 10 years since NT/CT
476 implementation). Our results were also supported by the meta-analysis of Pittelkow *et*
477 *al.* (2015) for the climatic and management conditions of our study (dry climate, rainfed
478 conditions, 0 or low N rate and crop rotation with retention of residues). By contrast,
479 significantly lower yield values were obtained in V-MT than in V-NT/V-CT (Table 1,
480 Supplementary Material), which could be a result of higher weed population of these
481 plots (Armengot *et al.*, 2015).

482 Yield-scaled N₂O emissions were 2.4 times higher in B than in V ($P < 0.01$)
483 (Table 3), which is the same proportion obtained by Malhi and Lemke (2007) in a
484 comparison of barley and pea crops. However, the comparison between a fertilized
485 cereal and a non-fertilized N fixing crop should be taken with caution as it is estimated
486 that 78% of biomass N in forage legumes comes from N₂ fixation (Anglade et al.,
487 2015), thus affecting the residual N in soils and potential N losses. Yield-scaled N₂O
488 emission values were considerably low compared to those reported in the meta-analysis
489 of van Groenigen *et al.* (2010) for low ($< 100 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$) or even zero N-input systems, but
490 in agreement with those reported by Tellez-Rio *et al.* (2015) for V under similar
491 conditions. When this index was expressed as kg of CO₂-eq emitted per kg of grain
492 produced, values (0.01-0.02) were also consistent with those obtained by Plaza-Bonilla
493 *et al.* (2014b) in a rainfed Mediterranean barley field, and were much lower than the
494 mean value obtained by Skinner *et al.* (2014) for arable non-organic fields (0.15 kg
495 CO₂-eq. kg DM⁻¹). Although this campaign could be considered as “representative”
496 with regard to rainfall and temperature, YSNE should also be assessed under more
497 unusual conditions (e.g. very dry and very wet campaigns, that could affect N₂O fluxes
498 and the effect of tillage on crop yields) in order to determine the range of YSNE values
499 in this agro-ecosystem and for each treatment. Unlike van Kessel *et al.* (2013), who
500 described a significant decrease in N₂O emissions per kg of yield in dry climates and
501 long-term experiments (≥ 10 years) under NT systems, we did not find differences in
502 YSNE between tillage treatments. This could be due to the small differences in yield
503 and low total N₂O emissions.

504 Net GWP calculations identified NT and V as the most sustainable alternatives
505 among the tillage and crop factors, respectively. The comparison of Net GWP
506 components showed that N₂O fluxes ($< 120 \text{ kg CO}_2\text{-eq ha}^{-1}$) had a lower influence than

507 C sequestration, farm inputs or operations (Fig. 4). A similar result was found by
508 Aguilera *et al.* (2014) in a Life Cycle Assessment of Mediterranean cropping systems.
509 However, contrasting results have been found in other crop systems where N₂O fluxes
510 were above 200 kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹ (Adviento-Borbe *et al.*, 2007; Dendooven *et al.*, 2012).

511 In relation to the tillage treatments, NT had the highest C sequestration rate, in
512 agreement with results from previous studies (Franzluebbers *et al.*, 1998; Morris *et al.*,
513 2004), and the lowest Net GWP value (-1498.7 kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, Table 4), as shown
514 by the greater mean annual C sequestration in NT compared to CT (Table 2). However,
515 this mean value (‘Δ soil C GWP’ component) is dependent on factors such as: 1) the
516 soil depth used for calculation, which may have affected SOC distribution in NT *versus*
517 CT systems (Baker *et al.* 2007); and 2) the assumption of a linear C sequestration
518 pattern in time, when the annual rate actually tends to decrease in the long-term
519 (Álvaro-Fuentes *et al.*, 2014). In this sense, values reported by Martin-Lammerding *et*
520 *al.* (2011) corresponding to 2007 (Table 2), revealed that bulk density and C stocks are
521 very dependent on the number of years considered since the beginning of the
522 experiment. Another consideration is that this component measured the relative increase
523 in C sequestration (using CT as a baseline), so it might only be valid for comparing
524 treatments. With the information from 2007, C sequestration would have differed much
525 less between tillage treatments, highlighting the bias associated to this index and the
526 need to strongly consider site-specific GHG emissions data.

527 Farm operations and inputs, which were considered for Net GWP calculation,
528 were also dependent on tillage. No tillage plots had the lowest ‘operation + input GHG
529 emission’ value (508.1 kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), mainly due to a reduction in the number of
530 labor operations. Therefore, other farm operations and inputs, such as herbicide
531 application and manufacturing, which were more frequent in NT than in tilled plots, had

532 a lower impact on Net GWP than the fuel demand for tillage operations. In this sense,
533 cumulative N₂O emissions in NT plots would have to reach almost 405 g N₂O-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹
534 ¹ to obtain similar values to the CO₂-eq from tillage and other farm operations in CT.
535 This is twice the value of those reported in this experiment, but in the range of other
536 studies in Mediterranean areas (Aguilera *et al.*, 2013). If the effect of C sequestration is
537 also considered, NT would have to emit 8.8 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, which is even greater
538 than the emission rate of European grasslands sites (Rees *et al.*, 2013). Regardless of the
539 uncertainties associated with the calculation of C sequestration, N₂O losses were
540 smaller than CO₂-eq from farm inputs and operations (Fig. 4). Therefore, the adoption
541 of NT should be recommended for reducing the GWP in rainfed semi-arid agro-
542 ecosystems.

543 In this long-term experiment, the crop factor affected Net GWP components
544 such as N₂O emissions (higher in V than in B) and farm operations and inputs (higher in
545 B than in V) (Table 4, Fig. 4). Carbon dioxide fluxes derived from the higher fertilizer
546 and herbicide demand in B explained the higher Net-GWP in this treatment. Thus, N₂O
547 emissions in V subplots would have to be 10 times higher (2.4 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) than
548 those reported to offset CO₂-eq from farm operations and manufacturing inputs
549 associated with B crops in this experimental area. Our results agree with those of
550 Mosier *et al.* (2005) and Adviento-Borbe *et al.* (2007) under different climatic
551 conditions, suggesting that crop rotation systems including legumes are advisable
552 strategies to reduce Net GWP as opposed to continuous cropping of winter cereals, and
553 an opportunity to lower farm costs as a result of lower input demands (Kassam *et al.*
554 2012; Jensen *et al.*, 2012). These results should be confirmed with further long-term
555 experiments assessing the whole rainfed crop rotation (fallow-cereal-legume-cereal),

556 compared with cereal monoculture and cereal-based rotations (cereal-fallow) in semi-
557 arid agro-ecosystems.

558 **5. Conclusions**

559 Low cumulative N₂O fluxes (which were influenced by ‘tillage x crop’
560 interactions) and yield-scaled N₂O losses constituted an important advantage of rainfed
561 cereal/legume agro-ecosystems. The analysis of other GHG sources and potential sinks
562 through Net GWP calculations indicate that NT was the most useful strategy to reduce
563 CO₂-equivalent fluxes, mainly as a result of C sequestration and lower fuel
564 consumption. Furthermore, the non-fertilized legume crop is also recommended for
565 reducing Net GWP (in spite of higher N₂O emissions under CT and MT), mainly
566 through the reduction of inputs (N fertilizers and herbicides). Therefore, the use of
567 Conservation Agriculture practices such as NT and crop rotation including legumes, as
568 opposed to continuous cropping of winter cereals, could be considered as a good
569 strategy in semiarid agro-ecosystems for decreasing Net GWP without affecting crop
570 yield.

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777 **Figure captions**

778 **Fig. 1a** Weekly mean air and soil temperatures (°C) and rainfall (mm) and soil WFPS
779 (%) in the three tillage treatments (no tillage, NT, minimum tillage, MT, and
780 conventional tillage, CT) in **b** vetch (V) and **c** barley (B) during the experimental
781 period.

782 **Fig. 2a, b** NH_4^+ -N; **c, d** NO_3^- -N; and **e, f** DOC concentrations in the 0–15 cm soil layer
783 during the experimental period for the three tillage treatments (no tillage, NT, minimum
784 tillage, MT, and conventional tillage, CT). Data are provided separately for V (left) and
785 B (right) treatments. Vertical lines indicate standard errors.

786 **Fig. 3** Cumulative N_2O emissions for no tillage (NT), minimum tillage (MT) and
787 conventional tillage (CT) treatments during the four measurement periods (I, II, III and
788 IV) in **a** vetch (V) **b** barley (B). Vertical lines indicate standard errors.

789 **Fig. 4** Contribution of each GWP component ($\text{kg CO}_2\text{-eq ha}^{-1}\text{yr}^{-1}$) to mean Net GWP
790 values in the different tillage (no tillage, NT, minimum tillage, MT, and conventional
791 tillage, CT) and crop (vetch, V, and barley, B) treatments. The 'GHG-GWP' component
792 indicates the sum of CO_2 equivalents from N_2O and CH_4 emissions, considering a 100-
793 year horizon.

794 **Fig. S1** Significant 'tillage x crop' interaction for N_2O cumulative emissions. The (*)
795 indicates significant differences within each tillage (no tillage, NT, minimum tillage,
796 MT, and conventional tillage, CT) between the two crops (vetch, V, and barley, B) at
797 $P < 0.05$. Vertical bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

798

Table 1

Annual CO₂-equivalent emissions related to agronomic practices (operations and inputs) in the different tillage (no tillage, NT, minimum tillage, MT, and conventional tillage, CT) and crop (vetch, V, and barley, B) treatments.

Source	CO ₂ equivalents	Observations	Reference
<i>Operations</i>			
Conventional tillage (moldboard plow)	98.1 kg CO ₂ ha ⁻¹ tillage ⁻¹	One moldboard operation in CT plots	West and Marland, 2002
Minimum tillage	32 kg CO ₂ ha ⁻¹ tillage ⁻¹	Two and one tillage operations in MT and CT plots, respectively	West and Marland, 2002
Herbicide application	5.1 kg CO ₂ ha ⁻¹ spraying ⁻¹	Two applications in B-NT plots and one application in B-MT and B-CT plots	Lal, 2004
Seeding fertilizer application	45.3 kg CO ₂ ha ⁻¹ application ⁻¹	Dressing fertilization was spreading homogenously by hand.	West and Marland, 2002
Sowing	17.3 and 13.9 kg CO ₂ ha ⁻¹ sowing ⁻¹	For NT and MT/CT, respectively	Lal, 2004
Harvesting	60.39 kg CO ₂ ha ⁻¹ harvesting ⁻¹		West and Marland, 2002
<i>Inputs</i>			
Herbicides	17.2 kg CO ₂ kg ⁻¹	3.6 L ha ⁻¹ in B-NT and 1.6 L ha ⁻¹ in B-MT and B-CT. Density =1 kg L ⁻¹ was assumed	West and Marland, 2002
N seeding	3.1 kg CO ₂ kg ⁻¹	16 kg N ha ⁻¹ applied in B	West and Marland, 2002
P seeding	0.6 kg CO ₂ kg ⁻¹	48 kg P ₂ O ₅ ha ⁻¹ applied in B	West and Marland, 2002
K seeding	0.4 kg CO ₂ kg ⁻¹	16 kg K ₂ O ha ⁻¹ applied in B	West and Marland, 2002
N dressing	9.7 kg CO ₂ kg N-AN ⁻¹ *	54 kg N ha ⁻¹ applied as AN	Snyder et al., 2009
Seed	0.11 kg CO ₂ kg ⁻¹	210 and 120 kg ha ⁻¹ in B and V, respectively. The same CO ₂ emissions were assumed for both crops	West and Marland, 2002

* AN means Ammonium Nitrate

Table 2

Bulk density (Mg m^{-3}), SOC content (g C kg^{-1}) in the 0-7.5, 7.5-15 and 15-30 cm layers, total SOC content (Mg C ha^{-1}) and C sequestration (C seq, $\text{Mg CO}_2 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) in the 0-30 cm depth of the different tillage treatments (no tillage, NT, minimum tillage, MT, and conventional tillage, CT).

	Bulk density (Mg m^{-3})		SOC (g kg^{-1})			Total SOC (Mg ha^{-1})	C seq ($\text{Mg CO}_2 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$)	
	0-7.5	7.5-30	0-7.5	7.5-15	15-30	0-30		
Year	2012 (2007)		2012			2012 (2007)		
Tillage	NT	1.39 (1.52)	1.55 (1.58)	11.0 b	6.5	7.3	38.3 b (33.2)	7.8 b (8.7)
	MT	1.22 (1.24)	1.43 (1.36)	7.8 a	7.2	6.6	31.9 a (32.7)	6.5 a (8.6)
	CT	1.30 (1.38)	1.52 (1.49)	6.1 a	6.3	6.3	28.3 a (31.9)	5.8 a (8.4)
S.E.	0.10		0.5	0.9	1.0	2.5	0.5	

Values in brackets have been obtained from Martín-Lammerding *et al.* (2011) and correspond to 2007. C sequestration rate was calculated dividing by the number of years since the experiment started (18) and considering the CO_2/C molar ratio. Different letters within columns indicate significant differences by applying the Tukey's honest significance test at $P < 0.05$. Standard Error (S.E.) is given for each effect.

Table 3

Cumulative N₂O-N emissions over the different periods of field experiment, total cumulative N₂O-N, CH₄-C and CO₂-C fluxes and yield-scaled N₂O emissions (YSNE) in the different tillage (no tillage, NT, minimum tillage, MT, and conventional tillage, CT) and crop (vetch, V, and barley, B) treatments.

Effect	N ₂ O cumulative emission (g N ₂ O-N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)				Total N ₂ O-N (g N ₂ O-N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	CH ₄ cumulative emission (g CH ₄ -C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	CO ₂ cumulative emission (Mg CO ₂ -C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	YSNE (g N ₂ O-N kg N up ⁻¹)
	I period	II period	III period	IV period				
Tillage	<i>P</i> = 0.189	<i>P</i> = 0.137	<i>P</i> = 0.275	<i>P</i> = 0.497	<i>P</i> = 0.931	<i>P</i> = 0.193	<i>P</i> = 0.095	<i>P</i> = 0.133
NT	57.0	84.8	46.0	11.9	199.7	-580.8	2.9	1.6
MT	51.8	103.2	57.9	1.0	213.9	-890.9	3.5	2.0
CT	88.7	93.8	20.0	6.0	208.6	-760.9	2.9	1.4
S.E.	12.4	5.0	14.4	5.9	30.6	90.8	0.2	0.2
Crop	<i>P</i> = 0.527	<i>P</i> = 0.002	<i>P</i> = 0.811	<i>P</i> = 0.767	<i>P</i> = 0.021	<i>P</i> = 0.501	<i>P</i> = 0.178	<i>P</i> = 0.005
V	62.8	125.3 b	43.2	11.5	235.9 b	-710.4	3.3	1.0 a
B	68.9	62.6 a	39.4	8.0	178.9 a	-790.0	2.9	2.3 b
S.E.	6.3	8.5	10.6	7.8	15.0	70.6	0.2	0.2
Tillage x crop	<i>P</i> = 0.480	<i>P</i> = 0.040	<i>P</i> = 0.821	<i>P</i> = 0.377	<i>P</i> = 0.049	<i>P</i> = 0.386	<i>P</i> = 0.222	<i>P</i> = 0.395
V-NT	50.6	88.6 Aa	42.0	10.35	191.1 Aa	-625.2	2.7	0.6
B-NT	64.0	80.9 Aa	50.0	13.4	208.3 Aa	-550.0	3.0	2.6
V-MT	56.9	155.6 Bb	65.6	9.9	288.0 Ba	-750.0	3.8	1.5
B-MT	46.6	50.8 Aa	50.1	13.1	160.7 Aa	-1048.3	2.2	2.4
V-CT	81.5	131.5 Bab	21.9	14.4	249.3 Ba	-765.5	3.3	0.8
B-CT	96.0	56.1 Aa	18.1	-2.5	167.7 Aa	-772.3	2.4	1.9
S.E. *	15.5	20.8	26.0	19.2	34.8	185.3	1.5	0.5
S.E. **		16.3			46.3			

Different letters within columns indicate significant differences by applying the Tukey's honest significance test at *P*<0.05. Standard Error (S.E.) is given for each effect. * is the standard error of the mean when comparing crops within each tillage treatment. In the case of significant interactions, the standard error of

the mean when comparing tillage treatments within a crop (**) is also given. Different capital letters in the interaction indicate significant differences between crops within a tillage treatment, whereas different lowercase letters indicate significant differences between tillage treatments within a crop, by applying the Tukey's honest significance test at $P < 0.05$.

Table 4

Estimated Global Warming Potential (GWP, kg CO₂ eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) for the different tillage (no tillage, NT, minimum tillage, MT, and conventional tillage, CT) and crop (vetch, V, and barley, B) treatments.

Effect	Global Warming Potential (kg CO ₂ eq ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)					
	GHG-GWP ^a	C seq ^b	Operations	Inputs	Net GWP ^c	Net farm GWP ^d
Tillage	<i>P</i> = 0.431	<i>P</i> = 0.001			<i>P</i> = 0.012	<i>P</i> = 0.000
NT	27.7	-2034.4 a	105.4	402.7	-1498.7 a	-1183.3 a
MT	26.1	-220.0 b	163.4	385.4	335.1 b	-11.3 b
CT	35.5	0 b	229.6	385.4	650.5 b	273.3 b
S.E.	4.9	708.4			713.4	713.4
Crop	<i>P</i> = 0.225				<i>P</i> = 0.000	<i>P</i> = 0.003
V	31.9	-751.5	140.1	48.4	-531.1 a	-556.1 a
B	27.6	-751.5	192.2	733.9	202.3 b	-524.9 b
S.E.	2.3				2.3	2.3
Tillage x crop	<i>P</i> = 0.088				<i>P</i> = 0.001	<i>P</i> = 0.041
V-NT	24.8				-1883.5 Aa	-1931.90 Aa
B-NT	30.5				-1113.8 Ba	-1870.75 Ba
V-MT	33.9				0.55 Aa	-47.86 Aa
B-MT	18.4				709.6 Ba	-12.90 Ba
V-CT	37.0				289.8 Aa	241.39 Aa
B-CT	34.0				1011.3 Ba	288.77 Ba
S.E.*	5.5				5.5	5.5
S.E.**					1008.8	1008.8

Different letters within columns indicate significant differences by applying the Tukey's honest significance test at $P < 0.05$. Standard Error (S.E.) is given for each effect. * is the standard error of the mean when comparing crops within each tillage treatment. In the case of significant interactions, the standard error of the mean when comparing tillage treatments within a crop (**) is also given. Different capital letters in the interaction indicate significant differences between crops within a tillage treatment, whereas different lowercase letters indicate significant differences between tillage treatments within a crop, by applying the Tukey's honest significance test at $P < 0.05$.

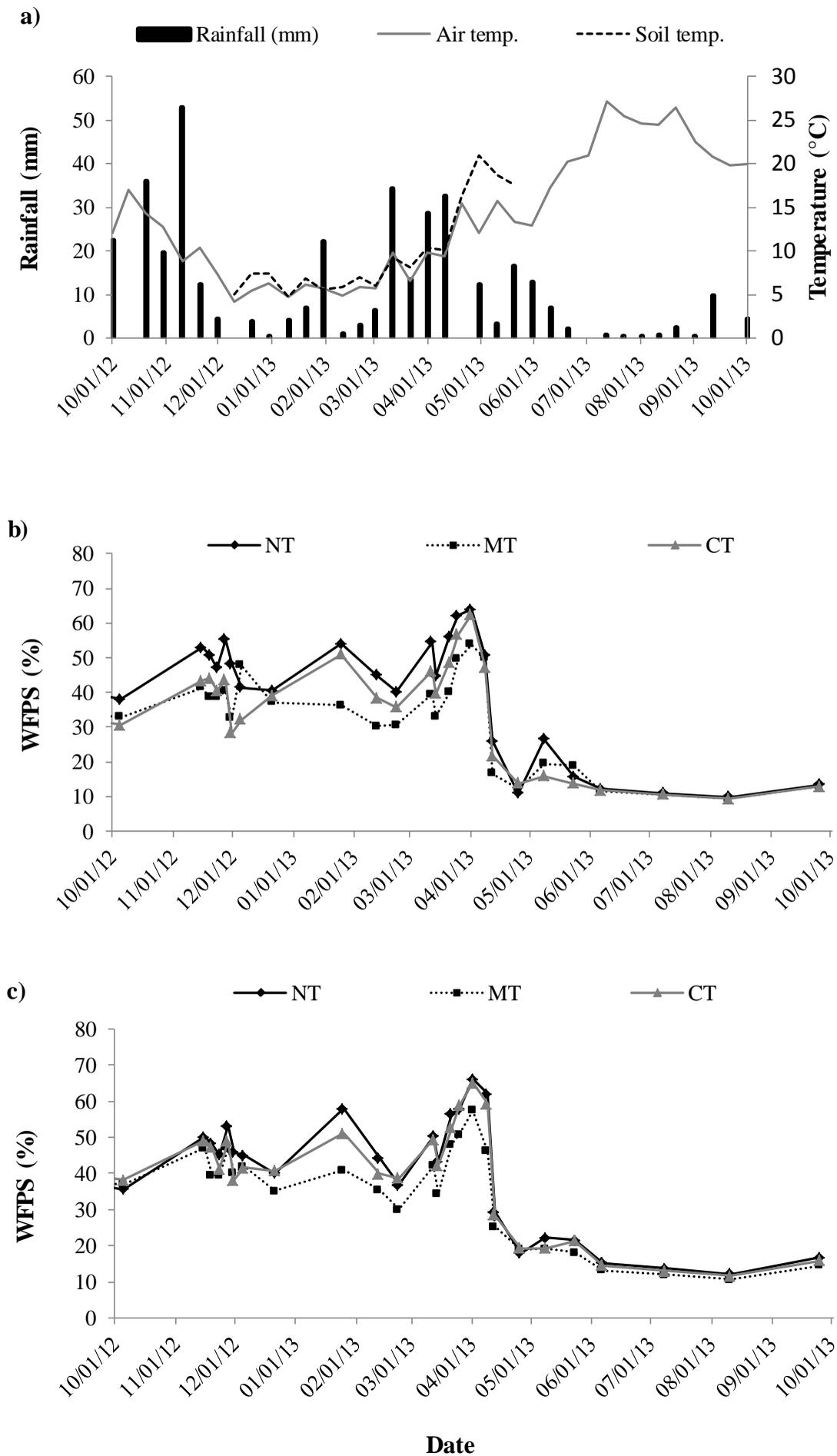
^a Sum of CO₂ equivalents from N₂O and CH₄ emissions, considering a 100-year horizon.

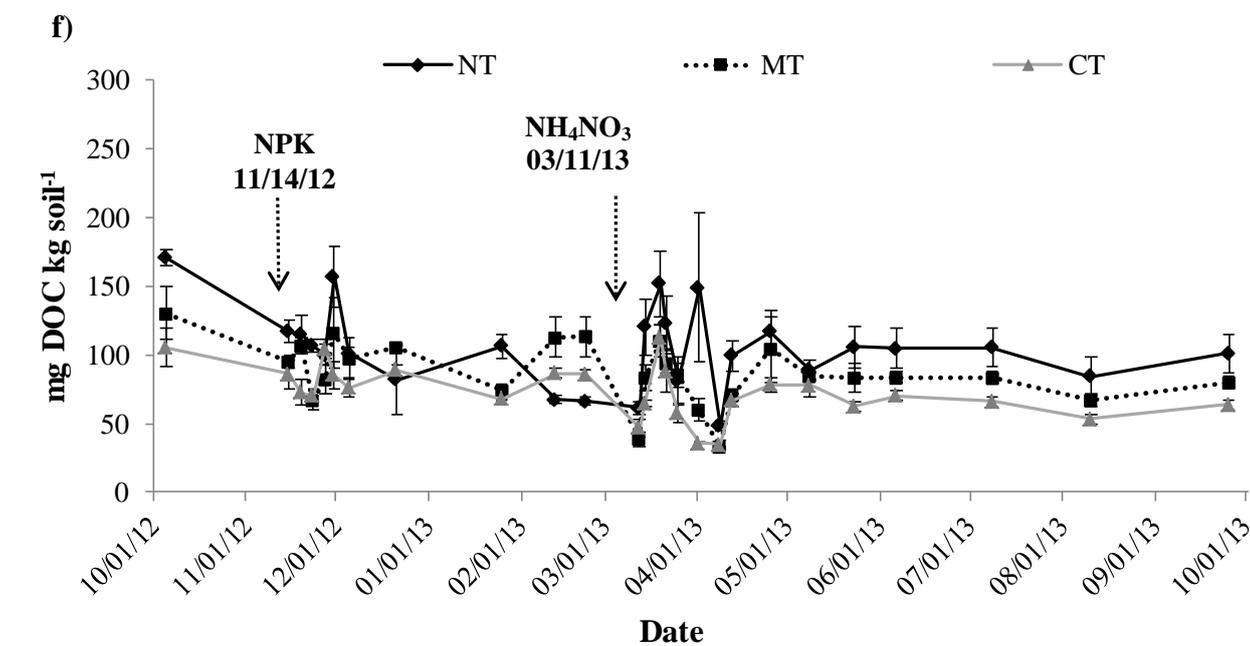
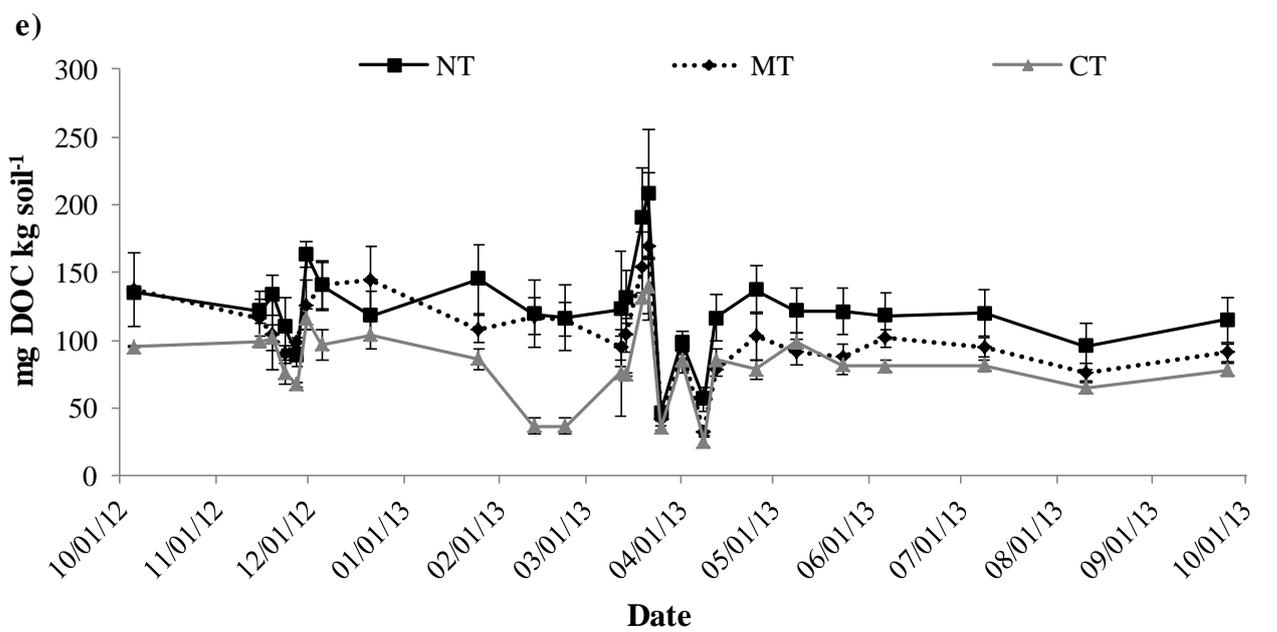
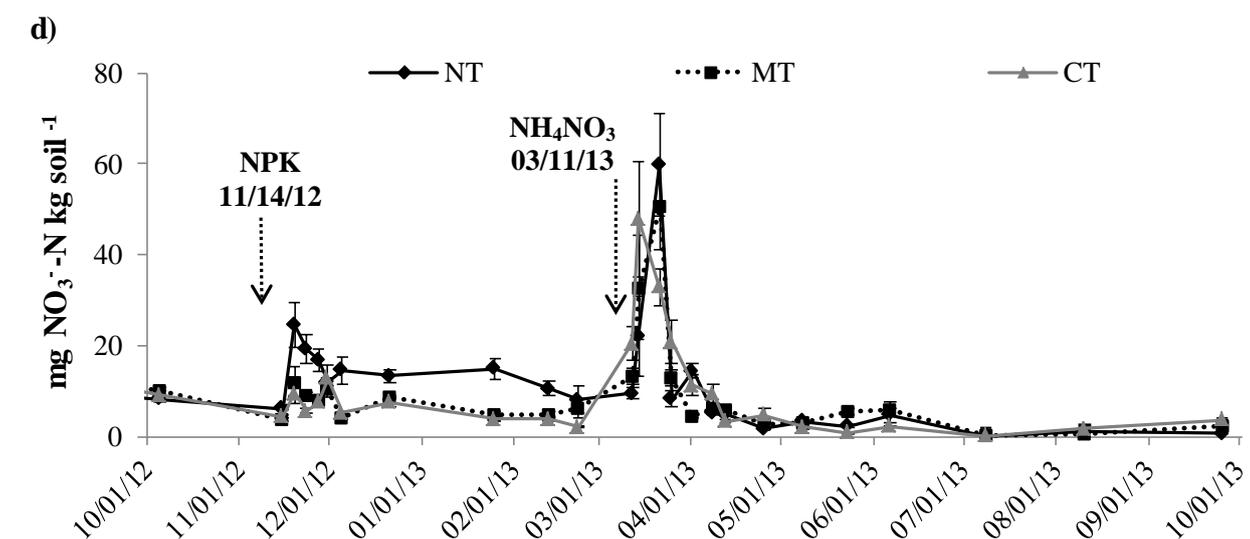
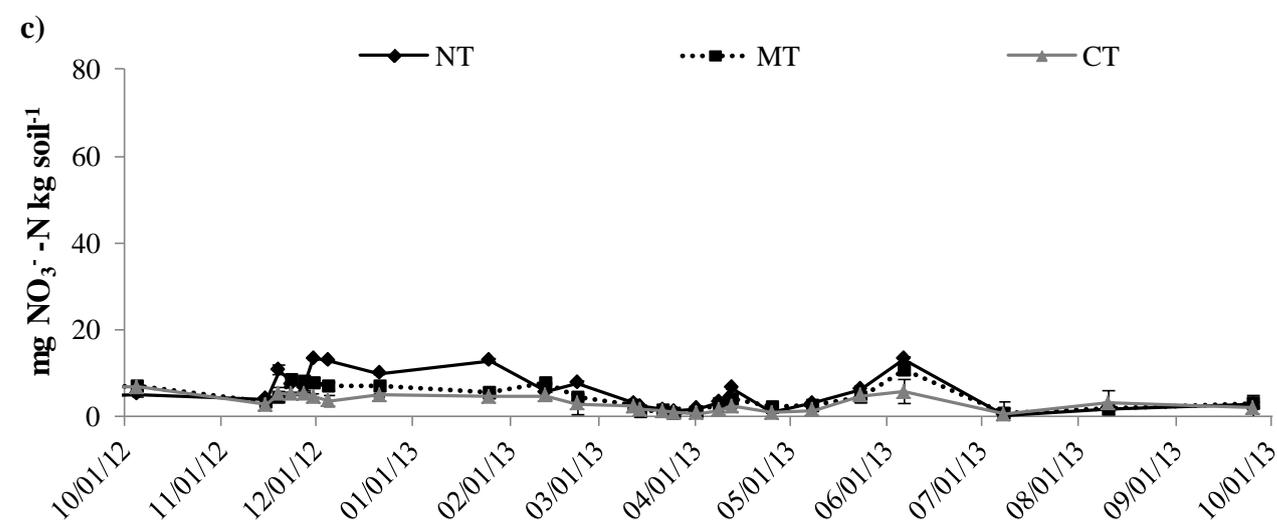
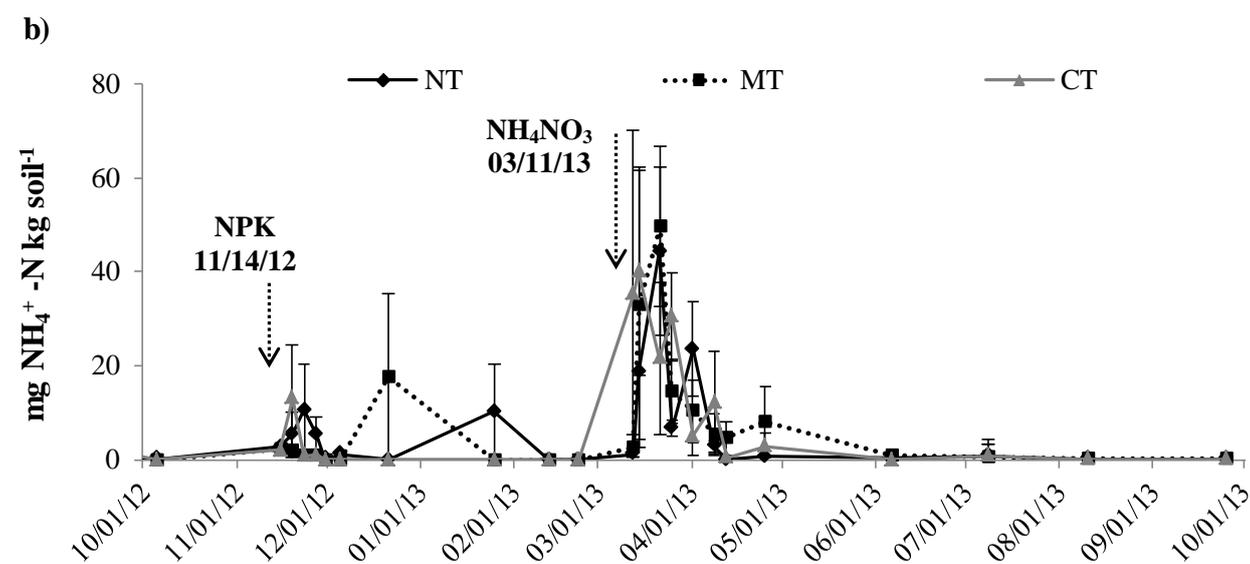
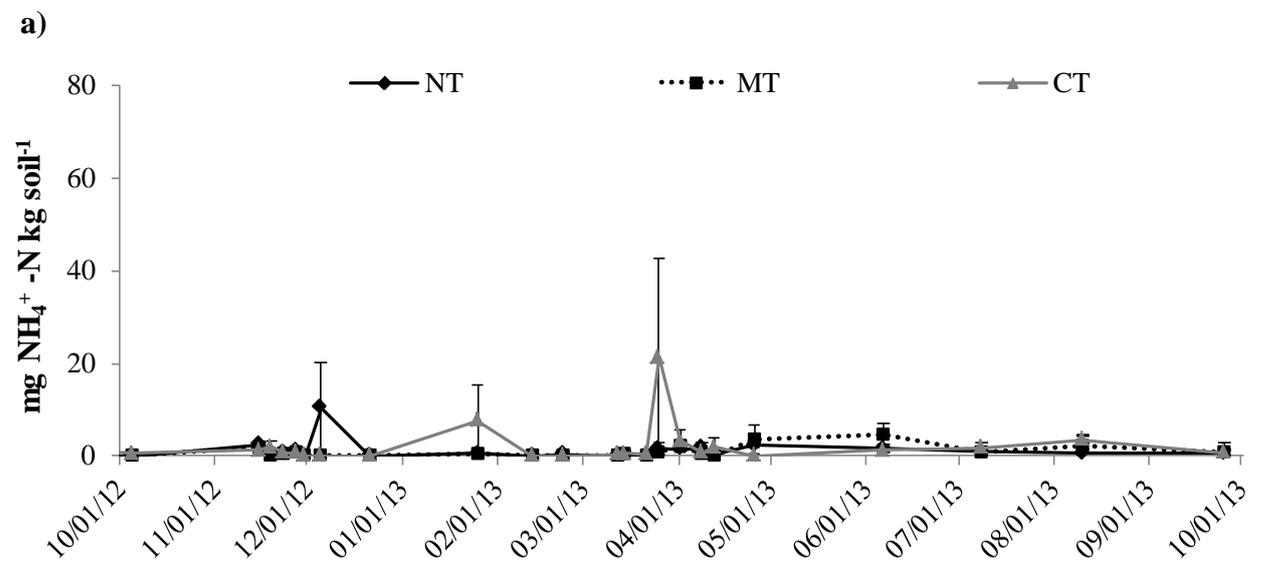
^b CO₂ equivalents from C sequestration, calculated taking the difference in SOC stocks between CT (as baseline) and the rest of tillage treatments, dividing it by the number of years since the experiment started (18) and considering the CO₂/C molar ratio.

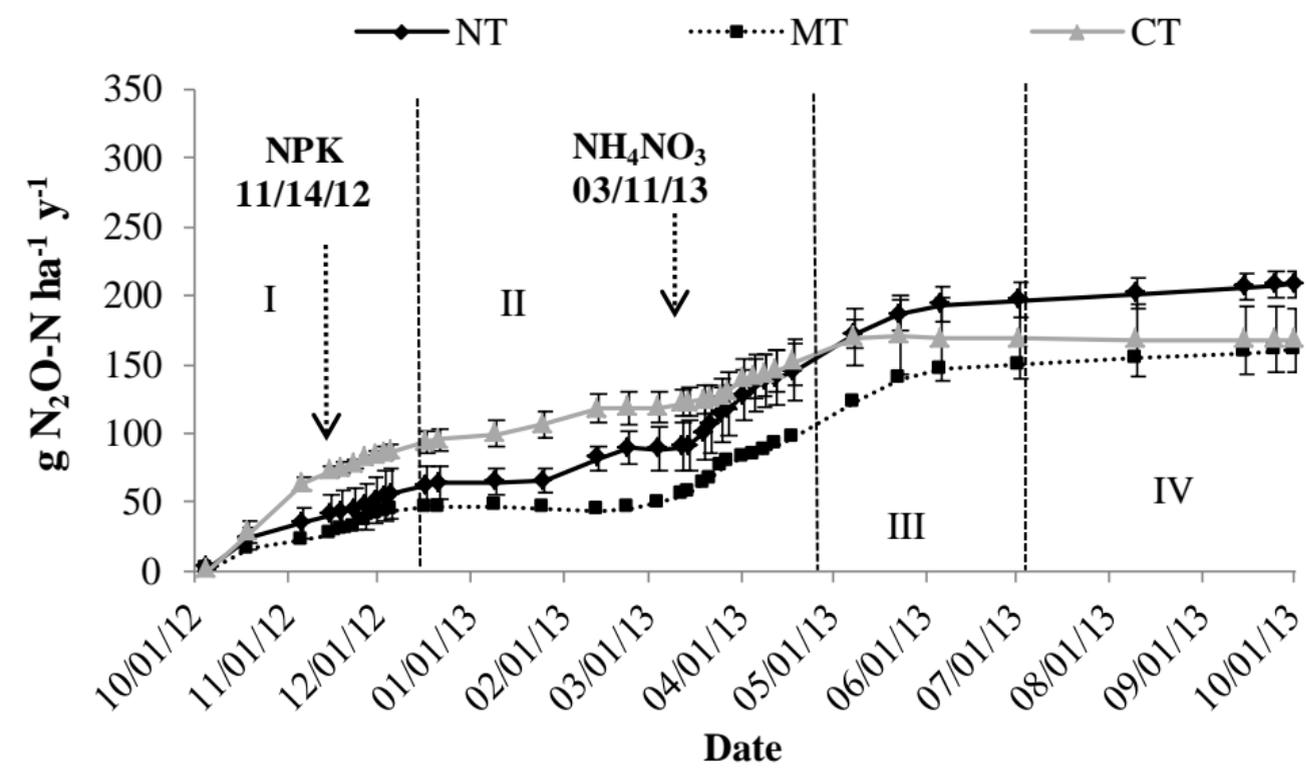
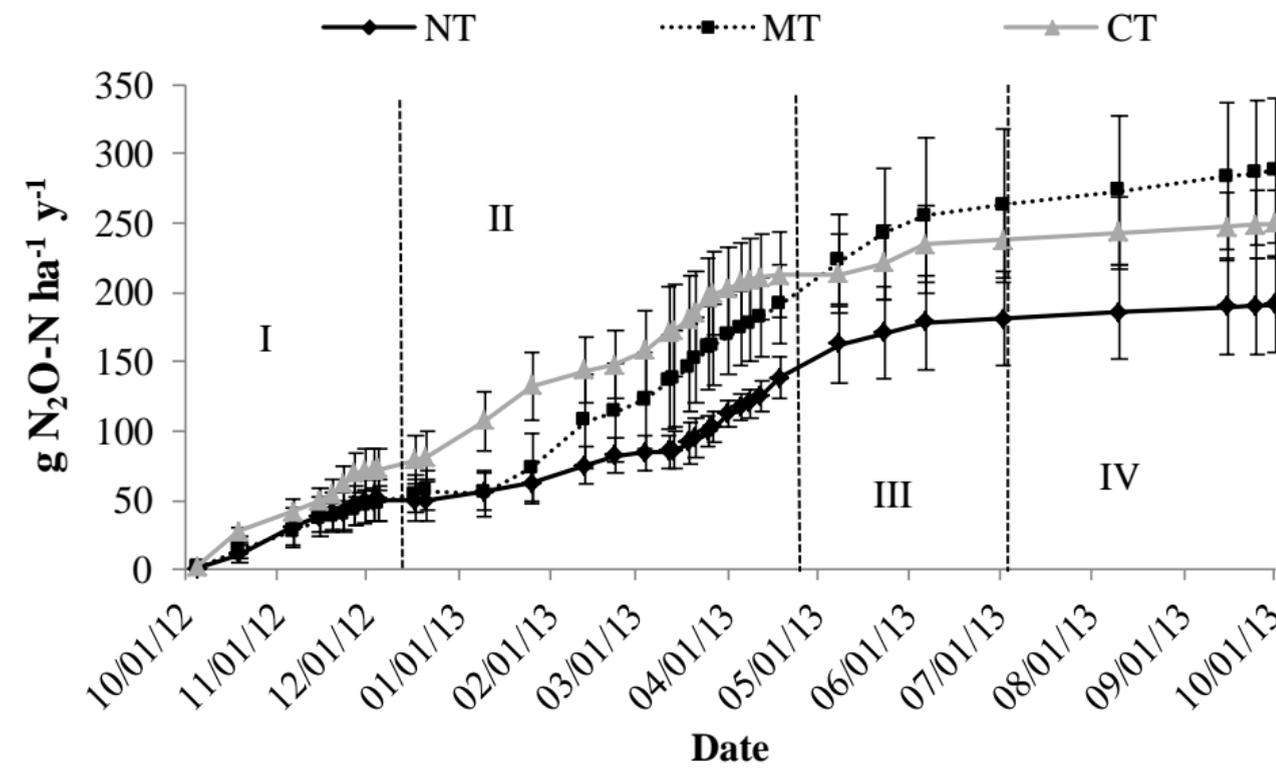
^c Sum of CO₂ equivalents from N₂O and CH₄ emissions, C sequestration (C seq), operations and inputs.

^d Difference of Net GWP and CO₂ equivalents from inputs production and post-production.

Figure
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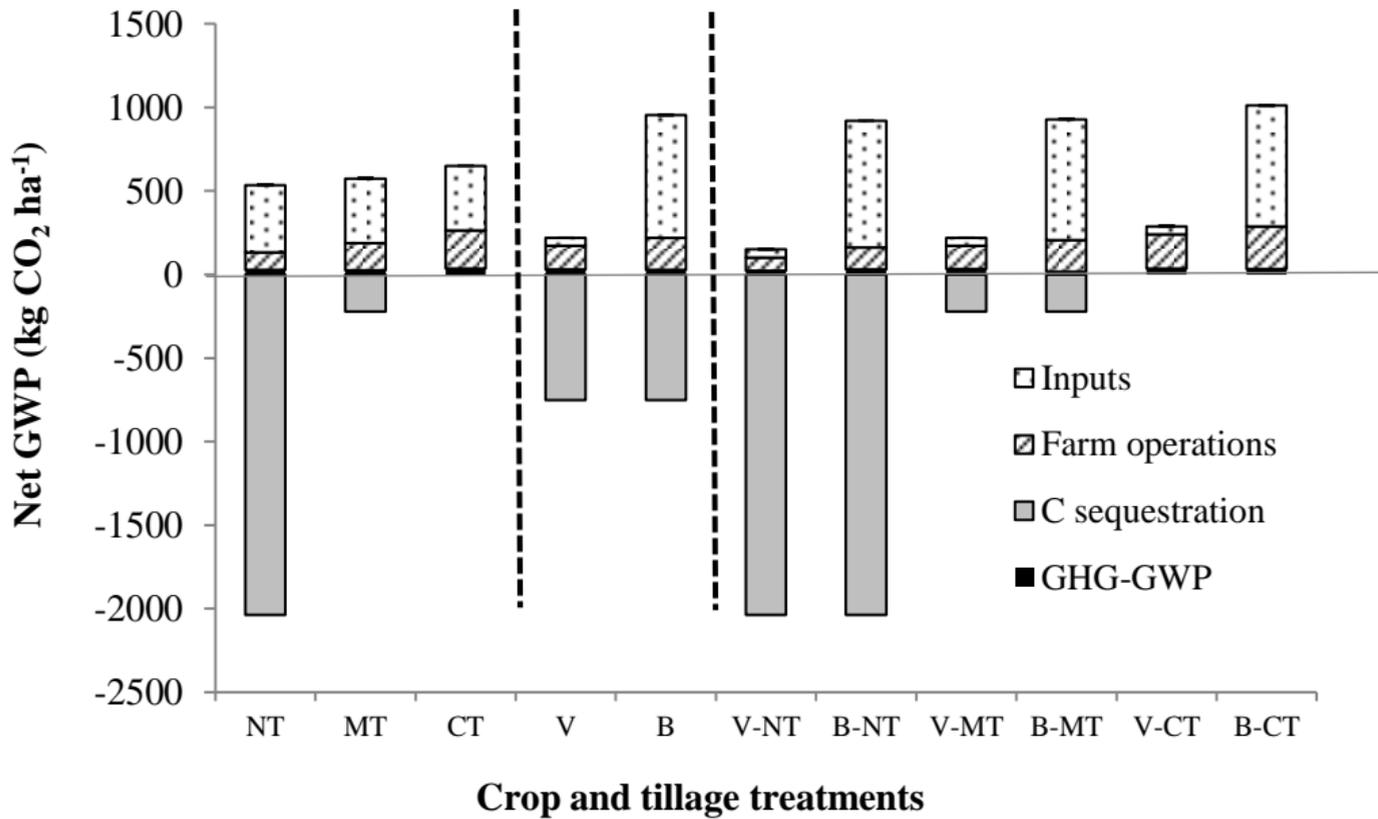




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